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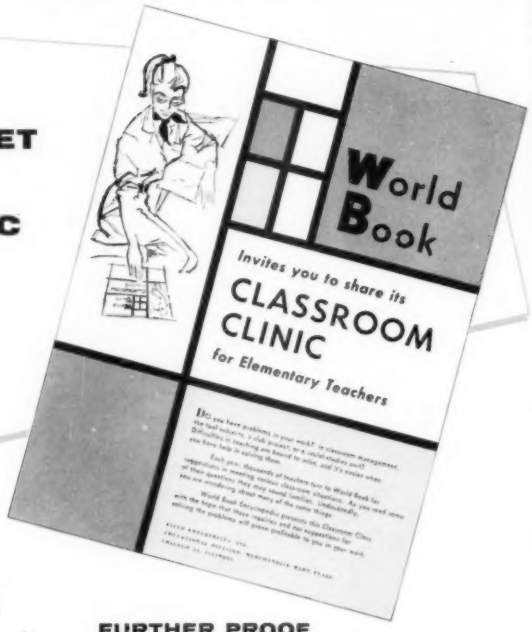

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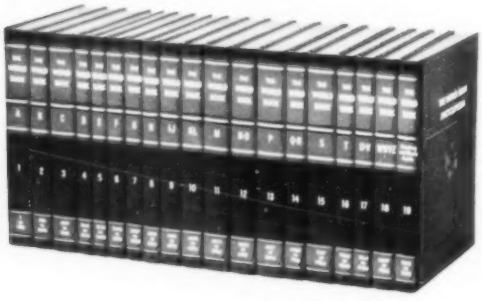

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THIRTY-SIXTH YEAR OF PUBLICATION VOLUME XXXVI NUMBER 6

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In this issue . . .

". . . *the school in the underprivileged slum or near-slum area may very aptly have to concern itself with such problems as grooming and basic sanitation. But if the school in the upper middle-class residential suburb uses its time and efforts in the same direction, it duplicates a function of the home which the home can reasonably be expected to fulfill.*" From "Who's Looking After Today's Children?" by Fred Hechinger. p. 8-10.

". . . *government is a cadaver without blood or breath and hardly bones unless it is considered in conjunction with the operative force of the people, the ideas impelling enough in men's minds to make them obey a particular form of government.*" From "Government—It's Setting and Challenge" by John Dawson. p. 11-15.

"*Full responsibility for impulse control descends suddenly on American children who have had little experience in disciplining their more childish desires, while French children, accustomed to severe early discipline, find life becoming more rewarding with young adulthood.*" From "Children in American Culture" by Margaret Mead, p. 16-19.

Next issue . . .

The final issue in this series will contain articles in the following areas: cooperation and competition, man's creativity, and science and public understanding. It will also include a "round-up" article which will be in the nature of an analysis of the year's series.

Publication of the May issue will be delayed a few days to allow time to include material from the Department's Annual Meeting.

THE NATIONAL ELEMENTARY PRINCIPAL is published in September (Yearbook Number), October, November (Membership Directory), December, February, April and May by the Department of Elementary School Principals, National Education Association of the United States.

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It might be interesting to you to learn how the Fresno City Elementary School Principals Association attained such prompt results on our 100 percent membership in the Department. Of course, the first item is salesmanship. We have convinced our principals of the value of national organization. The second factor is timing. We became exasperated at the delay involved in fall collection and transmission. Consequently, we now begin collection of next year's dues on June 1st. By the close of school in June, we have them all except for any of the people appointed during the summer who are solicited at our pre-school administrative conference. Collected dues are sent in in June and we have receipts, yearbooks, et cetera, at the first of the fall semester. We all have a better feeling about being prompt and having early privileges.

James E. Williamson, Principal
Chester Rowell School
Fresno, California

I am delighted with my author's copy of the Department's Thirty-Fifth Yearbook, *Instructional Materials for Elementary Schools*. It certainly contains a wealth of practical material. I've already tried out some of the suggestions it offers.

Kathleen R. Comiskey
New Bedford, Mass.

I am interested in THE NATIONAL ELEMENTARY PRINCIPAL, your magazine of the Department of Elementary School Principals. I am principal in our country about three years and am very interested in your magazine, for it is a good one.

David Bar-ner
Lydda, Israel

I would be very glad to help at the conference in any way I can. It has been my privilege to attend two national DESP conferences and I think they were the best planned and the most helpful of any conferences I've ever attended.

Alice W. Pierce, Principal
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• *note*

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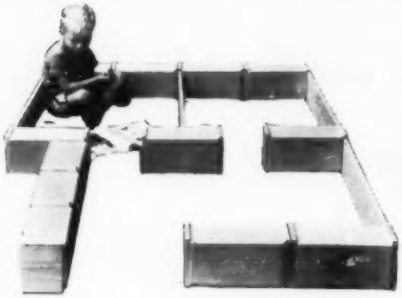

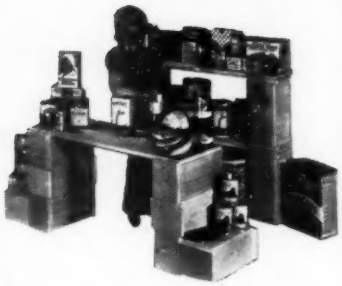

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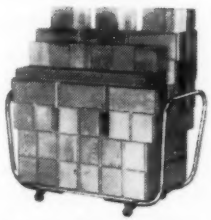

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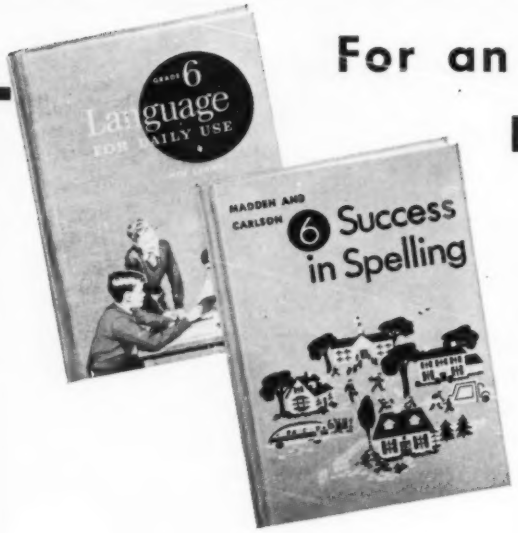

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NEA'S LEGISLATIVE PROGRAM

The NEA Legislative Commission has the responsibility for recommending federal legislative policies to the Resolutions Committee of the NEA (and thus to the delegates), and for working to carry out the legislative policies approved and adopted by the Representative Assembly annually. At its quarterly meetings the Commission reviews developments and trends in federal educational legislation. In the light of decisions made at these meetings, and using information gathered from state federal relations chairman and other leaders at the local and Congressional district level, the Commission plans its action program.

Working with the Legislative Commission is the Division of Legislation and Federal Relations. The Division is directly responsible to the NEA Executive Secretary, but in matters of general policy it is guided by the recommendations of the Commission. Primarily, the Division is engaged in the day-to-day operation of representing NEA to Congress and to the agencies of the federal government. Conversely, it is responsible for keeping the Legislative Commission and NEA members informed of federal government activities which affect education.

For 1957, the Commission is conducting a broad campaign based on a five-point legislative program which contains these objectives:

1. Federal assistance for construction of schools.
2. Federal assistance for improvement of teachers' salaries.
3. Federal scholarships for talented youth.
4. Equitable federal income tax treatment for both active and retired teachers.
5. Federal assistance to the states for developing programs of education for exceptional children.

Since the Representative Assembly at the 1956 NEA meeting in Portland gave a virtual mandate to the Legislative Commission to continue the fight for school construction aid, this has the highest priority in the 1957 program. When the Commission held its conference on federal legislation last December, conference participants developed a set of basic principles they felt should be an integral part of any school construction legislation. Those principles are:

1. Federal grants for public-school construction should be made to states on an objective basis which assures no diminution of state and local effort. These funds should be administered by the U. S. Office of Education, channeled thru official state education agencies, and distributed as provided by state law.

2. Traditional local and state control over public education should be assured by specific prohibitions against interference by the federal government in the program, personnel, curriculum, or administrative policy of the schools.

Legislation to enforce compliance with the decisions of the U. S. Supreme Court on the issue of segregation in the public schools contradicts the principle of federal aid without federal control. For this reason, compliance with the decisions of the Supreme Court should be the responsibility of the lower courts in the manner described by the U. S. Supreme Court.

3. An adequate emergency school-construction program requires large-scale federal grants. To supplement this direct aid, the bill should provide for federal purchase of school bonds in districts where such bonds are not readily marketable at reasonable rates of interest.

4. In addition to direct grants in aid, an emergency school-construction bill should include federal funds to assist the states to administer the program effectively and to provide state studies as a basis for future solutions to the problem.

5. An emergency school-construction bill should apportion funds to all states, using a formula that combines flat grants based on school-age population, as determined by the census of the U. S., with equalizing grants based on generally accepted indexes of state financial ability.

Who's Looking After TODAY'S CHILDREN?

FRED M. HECHINGER

THERE is always the temptation to be overly nostalgic about the virtues of past generations—especially our own. "The good old days" always sound better than those we live in today. In retrospect, the youthful exploits of fifty years ago seem like hilarious pranks; similar exuberance in the present tense is quickly classified as "delinquency."

But even if those allowances are made—and I am young enough to recall my own misdemeanors without glorifying them—the problems of today are more serious than those of the past. The reason, almost certainly, is not that youth has become so much worse. The reason, I believe, is that society has changed with unprecedented speed and with so little advance warning that we have been caught unprepared. Our educational and recreational approach to youth has not begun to catch up with the new age—the age of the automobile, high standards of living, overemployment, installment buying, and working mothers, to mention just a few ingredients. But today's children—whether we like it or not—live in that new age.

Perhaps the most important failure, during this period of violent changes in the social pattern, has been in the area of readjusting the relative responsibilities of the home and the school in bringing up children and adolescents. The failure is so complete that whenever a wave of real vandalism and serious delinquency hits a community today, the citizenry finds itself at a loss—almost paralyzed—on the line of action to take.

In town after town in recent months, segments of the lay public—generally the most outspoken elements—have been calling for the legalizing of corporal punishment in the schools as the major remedy. Even some teachers (privately, for the most part, because public approval of such shock treatment would hardly sit well with their professional colleagues) have been supporting this view. In my own community—Bridgeport—following an outbreak of vandalism after the weekly high school night football games, the official reply was to ban the games altogether, without any apparent attempt to look for the causes of the problem before tackling its surface symptoms.

A Look at the Background

The only sensible way, it seems to me, to reappraise the sharing of responsibilities is to take a quick look at the background.

I believe the trouble started, ironically, at the very time when education also began to make its most impressive strides ahead. With the discovery of child psychology and the relaxing of the rigid, inflexible approach to youngsters, came the announcement by the schools that they were ready to take over many of the functions and responsibilities that had traditionally belonged to the home. Roughly, this was in the Twenties.

The idea of "educating the whole child" had just been advanced, based on similar experiments in Germany and Switzerland. It was an important idea, not at all ridiculous as it is often painted today. All it meant was that the teacher would have to know all about a child—his mind, body, background, capabilities, and handicaps—to do justice to the difficult process of teaching.

The mistake that was made, I believe, was that the new phrase was often misunderstood to mean that the new and modern school could and should

Fred M. Hechinger is Associate Publisher of the *Bridgeport Sunday Herald* in Bridgeport, Connecticut. Until recently he was Education Editor of the *New York Herald Tribune*.

take care of the entire education of the child, if possible without any interference on the part of the parents. This, of course, is not only nonsense; it is dangerous nonsense.

It became, fortunately on only rare occasions, almost criminal nonsense when teachers, mistaking their mandate to understand and apply child psychology to the process of learning, set themselves up as practicing child psychologists or even psychiatrists and took their jobs to be clinical as well as educational.

In all fairness to the schools it should be added that the home in that period permitted itself to be freed of its responsibilities with almost indecent haste. The return to post-World War I "normalcy," the irresponsibility of the "Roaring Twenties" and the preoccupation with bathtub gin, the depression and its day-to-day struggle for survival, and finally the gathering clouds of World War II—all of this added to many parents' delight in handing over their children for as much time as possible to the schools. Add to this the popularity of the theory of "self-expression," misinterpreted to mean complete laissez-faire, and you have the perfect home conditions for legalized—even glorified—responsibility.

Nor was this period in any way distinguished by real public support of educators in their new mission to deal with a so vastly expanded education mission. The "Let George Do It" attitude was not matched by any readiness to give George the tools with which to accomplish the job. The schools were starved of funds. The PTA and other well-intentioned groups frequently confined their activities to occasional ladies' teas. If the public still subscribed to the theory that "the schools belong to the people," what was in fact practiced was absentee ownership.

At long last, we have returned to active and, in some places, truly bubbling and inspiring citizen action. Such vast movements at the National Citizens Commission (now Council) under Roy Larsen and Henry Toy, Jr., and the Connecticut Fact-finding Commission, under Norman Cousins, revived the people's interest in education.

Problems Remain

But many problems remain.

The most important of those problems is that of persuading the home to take back some of its responsibilities and to work in close partnership with the school. This could not have happened at a more inconvenient moment. For while our incomes and our over-all standard of living are at an all-time high—so is the cost of living. The result is that in order to support our families in the style to which we have become accustomed (or which social pressures demand), mother and father must, in too many homes, share the breadwinning tasks.

For all practical purposes, of course, the domestic servant—to say nothing of the governness—has become extinct. All this has led to the creation of a new category of youngsters, the "door-key kids" who "let themselves in" after school and are on their own perhaps for several hours.

This has been going on at the very time when our cities are at their lowest ebb. Those who have children move, if they can afford it (and frequently even if they can't), to the suburbs. The lower economic and social groups fill the vacuum in the cities. Most of these new arrivals are potentially fine and valuable citizens, but the old welcoming and integrating agencies—the neighborhood church and the neighborhood political organization—have lost much of their immediate effectiveness. And so the home life of these new arrivals starts at a weak beginning and is of too little help to the schools at the most crucial point. The "melting pot" is in danger of cooling off. (Remember that in almost every past story of immigrant families in such typical areas as New York's Lower East Side, the strongest bond was that of a cohesive family, with close religious and cultural ties.)

Nothing is further from my mind than to wish to sound defeatist and negative. But it is important to recognize the problems which we are facing.

Sharing Responsibilities

To re-establish a bridge between the school and the home, and to redistribute the responsibilities of each, the school must first accept a truth which it too frequently denies: it is the truth that while we want the public schools to be free and universal, we do not want them necessarily to be all alike. We want equal educational opportunities for all children, but we will surely

fail if we interpret this to mean "the same school for everybody and for every neighborhood."

For example, the school in the underprivileged slum or near-slum area may very aptly have to concern itself with such problems as grooming and basic sanitation. But if the school in the upper middle-class residential suburb uses its time and efforts in the same direction, it duplicates a function of the home which the home can reasonably be expected to fulfill. If the home, in such circumstances, fails in this, then it is a responsibility of the school not to step in and take over but to insist that the parents do their part and accept their responsibilities.

If the home—regardless of economic status—fails to provide the required educational atmosphere, the duty of the school is not simply to shrug its institutional shoulders and to say: "Well, we'll just have to take over and do the best we can." No, the responsibility of the school is to use its prestige, its standing in the community and its ability to exert social and leadership pressures to educate the parents and bring them around to the acceptance of their own rightful share in the bargain.

In extreme cases, I believe, the schools should avail themselves more readily of the punitive measures which society does—or should—give them. The child who becomes unmanageable or delinquent because of parental irresponsibility should not have to be dragged along by the school, thus retarding the education of all and endangering the behavior of many. When the home fails, the school should have the right to refer its children to foster homes or to other agencies.

This is a point that should also be brought to the attention of the courts. A very able high school principal told me recently: "I am helpless. Some really bad offenders will appear before a juvenile court, only to be reprimanded and returned to school. It only makes the situation worse than before: the delinquent has lost respect for the law, and even the good kids in his class, filled with a very normal youthful spirit of rebellion, look up to him as the hero."

I hope that some of the answers are implied in my description of the situation. It would be foolish and arrogant to put down a set of pat solutions to a series of problems which must be widely different in various parts of the country and even in different neighborhoods of the same towns or cities.

But some general conclusions can be drawn. The most important of these is that school and home, having already shed their spirit of isolation, must work even more closely together and share the entire job of educating "the whole child."

Just as there is a terrible danger—and the storm warnings are up in many towns—that the pendulum will swing from the extreme of "self-expression" and "hands off" to the other extreme of corporal punishment and a rigid, authoritarian approach, there is the equally serious pitfall of discrediting the originally wise idea of educating "the whole child." The idea is as wise today as it ever was. More so—because we know even more about the child than we did earlier. The problem is how to share that knowledge; and how, once it is shared, we can get each of the partners in the upbringing of the child to carry out his special function.

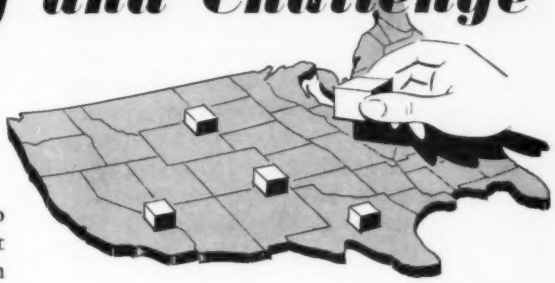
It can be done. In fact, despite the difficulties, there never was a better moment to do it. Why? The very numbers of the education picture lead us to a solution: on all levels, we now have between 42 and 45 million Americans enrolled in some kind of formal educational institution. That means that about one-fourth of the population is "going to school." As this proportion grows, it will be increasingly impossible for the professional teachers alone to do all the teaching. It has already begun to happen—more and more citizens will become part-time and even volunteer teachers. In a very real sense, we will become a nation of teachers, with the professional educators forming the increasingly important nucleus. As this happens, the lines between home and school will become blurred. The spirit of learning will, after having lived in exile for so long, reinvade the home. Parents will again share in the education process of their children. Even in the two-breadwinner home, the shorter working week will offer more time for the supervision of the children.

Does all this sound like a utopian dream? I firmly believe that it can, and will, come true—partly because we have already learned too bitter a lesson, partly because—despite all past failings—ours is a society of immense vitality and good will.

GOVERNMENT....

Its Setting and Challenge

JOHN E. DAWSON



EARLY in the American Civil War, a group of independent and determined men pulled out of the Confederacy and the Union. Led by Cap'n Newt Knight, these men of Jones County, Mississippi, successfully fought to stay home in what they liked to call "Jones Free State." Some sixty years later, a reporter interviewed Cap'n Knight, seeking his recollection of this bit of Americana.

Here is Cap'n Knight's story in the terse phrases of a tale many times retold.

"Confederacy drafted a lot of us Jones county men back in 1861. Sent around a sergeant with a couple of squads of riflemen; told us to come along. Marched us over near Montgomery, Alabamy. Found out we was supposed to fight the Nawth to keep ouah slaves. We Jones county men didn't own no slaves. Then we hear the Confederacy passed a law any man owned five slaves, they wouldn't draft him. He was supposed to stay home and raise vittles for fighting men. We Jones county men talked it oveh. I told 'em: 'This is a rich man's war and a poor man's fight. Let's go home.' One night we took our guns and ammynition, slipped out of camp one at a time, different directions, met where we said we'd meet, and we started home. Got home. Went about ouah business. Three times they sent Confederate soldiers after us. We warned 'em to keep outa Jones county. They came on. We ambushed 'em and shot the hell outa 'em. They let us alone afteh that. That's all they was to it. Union army came along after awhile; said they heard we was surrounded by Johnny Rebs and fightin' for the Union. We said: 'Hell, no. We ain't Union. We're Jones Free State. We ain't fightin' less'n we got a real reason to fight. Yo'-all want slaves, help yo'-selves. We don't own none.'

"So that's how-come Jones Free State."[1]

Cap'n Knight and the men of Jones County experienced the immediacy of government in their lives. For them, government was not a question of civics, but of Bull Run, Shiloh, and Bull Run again. As they had no "real reason" to fight, they withdrew from both the Confederacy and the Union.

The situation faced by these men of Jones County was rather unique in American experience. During civil war, law and order break down and the opportunity for something considerably less than normal participation in public acts is possible. Their voluntary withdrawal under these circumstances dramatized an important fact—*the source of the operative force of government is the people themselves.*

People Live Government

Government must be recognized as a significant part of daily living if it is to be understood. With every stop light, every penny of sales tax, and every day "in pursuit of happiness," there is government. Before any profit can come from considering political ideas or the nature of political machinery, we must be fully alive to the basic stuff of government—society as the environment of government, and the demands that

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[1] *Times-Picayune* (New Orleans). November 24, 1946. Quoted in Alexander Heard. *A Two-party South?* Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Press. 1952. p. 44.

society makes upon government. Some may find value in the abstract contemplation of government as tho it existed in a vacuum—ideal, and apart from you and me. But actually, government is a cadaver without blood or breath and hardly bones unless it is considered in conjunction with the operative force of the people, the ideas impelling enough in men's minds to make them obey a particular form of government.

There is a vital difference between government conceived as separate from us and government conceived as part of us. Stephen Vincent Benét, describing military strategy in *John Brown's Body*, portrays this difference.

> If you take a flat map
> And move wooden blocks upon it strategically,
> The thing looks well, the blocks behave as they should.
> The science of war is moving live men like blocks.
> And getting the blocks into place at a fixed moment.
> But it takes time to mold your men into blocks
> And flat maps turn into country where creeks and gullies
> Hamper your wooden squares. They stick in the brush,
> They are tired and rest, they straggle after ripe blackberries,
> And you cannot lift them up in your hand and move them.[1]

The flat maps and wooden blocks of the Confederacy did not allow for the fact that Jones County men owned no slaves. Without slaves, their minds saw no real reason to fight or, in fact, to support the Confederacy in any way. The Richmond government found it could not lift them up in its hand and move them.

Jones County men owned no slaves. With every public question there is some such fact, or a host of them, that will or will not bring forth the supporting power of the people as they act out their web of social relationships. Thus it is that the understanding of government comes, if it comes at all, with the understanding of the society in which and for which government acts.

For example, the farmer's dilemma as a public issue today is rooted in a host of societal facts: the shift from a rural to an urban majority; the advances of technology in methods and machinery, accompanied by changes in farm investment and economic unit requirements; wartime expansion of production; population growth which may require expanded production again in not too many years; changes in marketing practices; the status of this year's crops; interest rates and mortgage terms; and the uncontrolled variable of the weather. Given a knowledge of these facts and the resultant demands upon government, it becomes quite understandable to find the ninety-percenters and the advocates of flexible supports both roaming the Capitol's halls.

Think how changes in the facts of population have affected your own community, your state, during the last decade. It is just such facts that are the roots of changes in that part of our associative experience we call government—changes which we have a penchant for extracting from their roots and calling "bigness," "unprecedented action," or "too little, too late."

The citizen will find that the environment of government is important not just in terms of the legislator, struggling with the farm issue, or the similarly exposed public executive. Even the judicial branch gives it heed. Louis D. Brandeis, as a counsel before the U. S. Supreme Court, made history in the case of *Muller v. Oregon* (1908). In a successful effort to have upheld an Oregon law limiting maximum working hours for women, Brandeis used not traditional legal arguments, but a brief which amassed historical, sociological, and economic data to support his contentions.

More recently, and with significance quite apart from the immediate consequences, the Supreme Court approached its task with an eye to society when it held school segregation to be unconstitutional. In that decision the Court said: "In approaching this problem, we cannot turn the clock back to 1868 when the amendment was adopted, or even to 1896 when *Plessy v. Ferguson* was written. We must consider public education in the light of its full development and its present place in American life throughout the nation. Only in this way can it be determined if segregation in public schools deprives these plaintiffs of equal protection of the laws."

People Think Government

Viewing government as part of our social relations, seeing it in terms of our daily *lives*, is

[1] *John Brown's Body*. Stephen Vincent Benét. New York: Rinehart & Company. p. 44. Copyright, 1927, 1928, by Stephen Vincent Benét. Copyright renewed, 1955, 1956 by Rosemary Carr Benét.

essential. Yet there is more to the job of understanding government than just this. The actions of government, in their most fundamental sense, are shaped by the basic *ideas* of the people, about government and about themselves. Government should be viewed in the bright light of men's purposes, in terms of what they seek from political association. Along with turning flat maps into a country, one must search and probe men's purposes—even as basically as to sense their answer to the question, "What is man?"

See how the nature of man, his purpose, and his consequent role in the form of government he is to obey, permeate this familiar portion of the Declaration of Independence:

> We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men are created equal, that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable rights, that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. That to secure these rights, governments are instituted among men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed. That whenever any form of government becomes destructive of these ends, it is the right of the people to alter or to abolish it, and to institute new government, laying its foundation on such principles and organizing its powers in such form, as to them shall seem most likely to effect their safety and happiness.

It would be ludicrous to point out that these self-evident truths are not held universally, were it not that this fact is so important. Varying concepts of man (and the consequences thereof upon the nature of government) are the source of the historic cleavage between absolutism and constitutionalism, between, in modern terms, totalitarianism and democracy. As A. D. Lindsay has put it: "The real issue between the democrats and the anti-democrats is that the democrats think of a society where men can and do act as responsible persons. The anti-democrats talk of the mob, or the herd, or the crowd."

In the support of democratic government, men are seeking to gain the opportunity to "act as responsible persons." It is with this positive purpose in mind, that one becomes prepared to sensibly consider government.

The Challenges of Today

Now from the vantage point of this discussion, view for a moment our present American scene. The most startling fact of recent times is that the United States has been catapulted in a few short years into the role of world leadership. Side by side with this new role march the facts and needs of our economy, the most productive and widely beneficial in human history. A rampaging population, flocking here and there, growing ever larger, growing older than ever before, seems to tumble problem upon problem. Schools, roads, all public facilities, suddenly are simultaneously inadequate. Racial relations are at another churning point in their seldom quiet history. Sitting in the wings of the stage is atomic energy, perhaps the socially explosive force that a new source of power has always seemed to be. Communication is now something going on between machines. And even the child is different!

In such an environment, government has necessarily changed as well. It owns more buildings, employs more people, does things it never did before that are now demanded of it. As in every other field these days, those working in government have become specialists—accountants, geologists, administrators, atomic scientists, school principals—each with his own lore. Gone are the days of the western supporter of Andrew Jackson who, if he were an upstanding man capable of managing his private affairs and speaking his mind, was fitted for almost any public office.

Thus we not only face the substantive issues of our times, but we also must reorient to government staffed and influenced by specialists.

When considering the demands upon government, current and potential, and the influx of specialists into the operating fabric of government, it is well to recall the place of the public official in democratic government. As the Massachusetts Bill of Rights put it in 1780: "All power residing originally in the people, and being derived from them, the several magistrates and officers of government, vested with authority, whether legislative, executive, or judicial, are their substitutes and agents, and are at all times accountable to them."

Taken in conjunction then, the demands of our times and the requirements of democratic government mean challenges vital to each one of us.

First there is the challenge to recognize concretely those things which make the public agent's task unique. Perhaps the most commonly noted distinctive characteristic of government is its claim to a monopoly upon the use of force. There are others not so commonly conceded.

For instance, consider the term *efficiency*. There is the proposition that the governmental mechanism, as it bangs and clatters about its task, should do so efficiently, and certainly it should. Yet under some connotations, it all becomes as tho "civil defense" and "the school system" were issued a super-meatgrinder into which we fed men and materials or children and chalk. Then, with little allowance for human failings, out the other side should come foolproof schemes of urban evacuation and children who all read well in the first grade, pass on to "harder" tasks of development, and emerge educated without loss of school book or opportunity for the gifted child. This sort of flair for industrial efficiency is admirable and this is not meant to discount it. However, in industrial management one is supplied with a measuring stick of efficiency and success whereunder diverse elements, from good will and consumer relations to production records and overhead ratios, are boiled down to a single essence of profitability. A public task cannot necessarily be pursued with any such single-minded goal. For a public task, as a public trust, requires the cooperative satisfaction of community values—and these are plural in number.

The end of democratic government is to make that contribution the community deems proper to its development as more of a community, the provision of opportunity for man to be more of a man. It may not always be efficient to distribute relief in a manner that allows a man to keep his self-respect, but it is essential that government do it that way if it does not defeat its purpose. It is not necessarily efficient to let children plan and carry out a school party, yet the most fruitful parties may be toasted with a sour punch.

There are more things than just "force" and "efficiency" that make the governmental situation different. There is the constant presence of public attention, per se. There is the division of authority inherent in our three-branch, federalistic system. This divisiveness is evident within a particular level of government—local, state, or national—and among these levels. It results in such long-standing areas of difficulty as states rights and executive-legislative relations.

In many ways government is unique. It must be so recognized to be understood and utilized in these increasingly critical times.

A second challenge lies in the need to vitalize the political party mechanism as the broad linkage for the people and their government. This may seem strange at a time when, apparently, the political party is generally considered as somewhat less than vital. In fact, current attention often seems devoted either to a state of things that somehow ignores parties or to the interest groups that have grown up so rapidly in this country since, roughly, the 1880's.

These interest groups are not limited to economic or sectional aims necessarily, nor does the button-holing of public officials constitute their sole *raison d'etre*. But, as a vehicle for popular participation and representation in the advocacy of a particular interest or "point of view," pressure groups have become part of the daily experience of the legislative or executive leader.

In the advocacy of a group interest, whether by the AFL-CIO for the higher minimum wage, or by the NEA for federal aid in the construction of classrooms, two points should be noted: first, that what is being done is to promote a particular aim which may or may not be considered so desirable outside the circle of its advocates; and second, that the bland assumption that an aggregate of such interests will be in natural harmony is not sufficient to adjust automatically the contradictions that will certainly arise. For instance, the higher minimum wage, resulting in increased labor costs, would wreak havoc upon the cost estimates for the classroom construction project.

In actuality, certain group loyalties cancel one another out for each of us. Just as there are inner contradictions that will turn to chaos any effort simply to aggregate interests and call the result a composite public program, so as each of us approaches voting we seldom can vote the pure "platform" position of any one of our interests without doing violence to one or several others. When each man *with only his one vote* enters the booth in November, something broader, less definable may seem more important than the narrow and often conflicting interests with which he may be identified.

One can beneficially ponder such happenings as the majority vote received by the late Senator Taft of Ohio in 1950 in such places as the 17th ward of Columbus, composed mostly of railroaders and steelworkers with a record for heavy

Democratic majorities; or the comment of one Illinois farmer to Samuel Lubell in 1954: "I voted for Eisenhower to turn the tide of too much reliance on government. Now I'm voting Democratic again to see that things don't go too far the other way."

In the workings of politics, it is upon party that the group responsibility for "this broader, less definable thing" rests. As well as being a body of men united to win office, the party has to somehow integrate the policies of diverse groups into more common ground that can be called a program. It is in the party that one finds the strange bedfellows of diverse interest thrown together and probing hard to find a rationalization for the seeming incongruity of their coexistence. It is there that we see the flapping of the wings—left and right—which sometimes seem to belong to different birds. And yet, the party is the filter thru which particular interests must flow in the broad-gauged process of finding those things we successfully can do and want to do in common thru government.

As our demands upon government evolve with the assumption of world leadership, the development of atomic energy, and the explosive growth of our population, vital, able, and respected political parties with programmatic responsibility become a paramount necessity.

There is yet a third challenge—to maintain actual public accountability of the agent as he, specialized and professionalized, deals with the increasingly complex demands of society. The fear is sometimes expressed that these public specialists may become an elite unto themselves, composing an oligarchic rulership within a sham of democratic accountability. This is a serious challenge which needs to be faced as practically and forthrightly as we can.

It would appear that this concern stems from our experience with the requirements of national security in a scientific age. At the extreme, some consider that portions of the government's *expertise* are at times separated from adequate executive branch direction, while it is becoming frequently expressed that there exists such partitioning from legislative and public review. For instance, Sidney Hyman stated in *The Saturday Review* (February 2, 1957): "Our Constitutional process has been outstripped by the upheavals in science. We now face an ever-widening gap between power and responsibility; a gap permitting a President—any President—to wield almost autonomous authority in political-scientific matters without the close watch of the Congress and the people."

Without assessing here such views, let it be said that the scientist in government does at least suggest the *potential* difficulties in the reconciliation of the Constitutional process of public accountability with the specialization of the agent. And this is a difficulty not limited to the scientific *expertise* alone.

While considering this problem, think again of Cap'n Newt Knight and the men of Jones Free State. Think of the Richmond government that could not take them up in its hand and move them. Think of flat maps and wooden blocks that become streams and gullies and people. In that experience and others like it, there are clues as to how the people hold an agent accountable—that is, how democratic control works.

Democratic control of government is provided by active use of practices devised, first, to let the people convey what they are prepared to do and, a corollary, what they are prepared to tolerate; and second, to let the people convey satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the agent's results (past, present, and potential), thereby acting to continue present leadership or reject it and choose that of others.

When the men of Jones County refused to fight for the Confederacy, they were showing their limit as to what they were prepared to do. When they withdrew into Jones Free State, they were expressing their dissatisfaction with the Confederate leaders and the alternative of the Union leaders. Their actions were taken under conditions of civil war. They are paralleled under more orderly conditions by the practice of suffrage. It is the vigorous, intelligent, and *best-that-is-in-us* use in all elections of the practice of voting which expresses our power to control the agent. In the United States of the latter half of the twentieth century, it is the way we have our say on the whole range of public inquiry, the way we inform our agents as to what we are prepared to do, and the way we make our judgment of their performance.

In this era of *expertise*, democratic accountability of government to the people will become a sham only by our default.

CHILDREN in AMERICAN CULTURE

MARGARET MEAD

"YOU Americans," said the visiting psychiatrist from India, "are all right but you are always, in your social science, talking about the past."

I stared at the man for a minute in amazement —we are so accustomed to being blamed for having no past or at least for having no respect for it—before I could even take in what he meant. "You are always," he elaborated, "talking about childhood." Then I realized that to him, a member of an old nation going thru a stage of rapid industrialization, children meant childhood, meant the past of the present generation, a past to be escaped along with all the old obsolete ways of life. To us, as a new nation, building a new order in a new world instead of revising an old order in an old world, children are concerned with the future. But our traditional attitudes towards children and the future can lead to several pitfalls which are worth exploring so they can be avoided.

In the first place, we have all the habits of a very young nation. "America's youth," said Oscar Wilde, "is her oldest tradition." And actually, in terms of continuity of political tradition, we are one of the oldest nation states in the world today. We think of our school buildings as fairly modern—and they are, compared with Europe's guild halls. But they are quite old enough to have been built before there was proper heat or plumbing, quite old enough to sag dangerously and to present almost insuperable obstacles to the teacher of a modern art curriculum who must carry water up four flights of stairs, quite old enough to interfere seriously with order in a room where one corner of the floor is fenced off for fear it will break thru to the floor below. So in every walk of life, our accustomed belief and trust in our own youth, progressiveness, and modernity may lull us into a drowsy false appraisal of our actual situation.

As a people we have valued children very highly as the citizens of the future, the hope of the world. But childhood itself we have not valued as much. Like the Indian psychiatrist, we have felt that childhood was concerned with the past, with the life behind, with nostalgia and daydreaming—all attitudes as inappropriate in a pioneer country where an immediate adjustment must be made to the present as they are in a country in the midst of a social revolution. So we pursue an uneven course. On the one hand, we devalue childhood and teach children by every possible device to want to grow up to be six, twelve, eighteen, twenty-one, school age, a baby sitter, to want to pay full entrance fees at the movies, to get a driver's license and a job, to get married. On the other hand, we develop a compensating set of ceremonies in which adults sing their high school songs at picnics and university graduates gambol on academic greens at their fortieth class reunions, in which fathers play with electric trains at Christmas and mothers are required to keep right on looking like young girls until they are grandmothers or great-grandmothers.

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On a Par with Adults

But we have probably done more than any other great civilization to eliminate the inequalities between children and adults—as part of the great equalitarian efforts we have directed towards nullifying the disqualifications once inherent in sex, race, class, and national origin. Without full explicitness, we have slowly done away with the child's muted and subservient position and have tried to invent a way of life, complete with furniture, for each age.

Contrary to usage in most European countries, being a child has been seen in America not simply as a necessary and unfortunate period of preparation for becoming a full human being but as a stage of life in which the human individual has a right to the pursuit of happiness proclaimed as the proper pursuit for all men. Within a series of historical situations, children in America have come to be recognized as expectably knowing more than their parents, and they are expected to display to admiring parents and elders their proficiency in fields in which their parents have no proficiency whatsoever. Childhood as a time of apprenticeship in skill has vanished; childhood as a period of action in its own terms has taken its place.

Yet there have been difficulties when we have tried to fit together all these different approaches: children as the hope of the future, each of whom would outdistance his parents and all of whom would outdistance the previous generation; children who, out of an eager approach to responsibility and privilege, would want to grow up; and children who were persons in their own right, here and now.

One of the difficulties has been a confusion about childhood itself, which a human being, as a child, might enjoy. In some other cultures, childhood is seen as a time when one is free of responsibility, free to daydream and explore one's own imagery, free to slip away from adult ceremonial, exempt from the moral or religious demands made upon adults. Or it is seen as the time of pristine delight in the world before the "shades of the prison house begin to close upon the growing boy."

These are not the prevailing American attitudes. The American child was not cut off from the business of living, banished to a nursery. On the contrary, we have made a fetish of economic, useful activity for children, and parents have been known to take on the paper route while the child was kept in bed by the pediatrician. Baby sitting, grass cutting, paper routes, delivery routes, magazine selling, and dabbling in the stock market are all regarded as legitimate activities for children. Long lazy summer vacations are disappearing today as high school and college students work to support cars and early marriages. With the disappearance of servants and spare female relatives, with the growing proportion of working mothers, with the increased size of post-war families, smaller and smaller children are taking part in a kind of homemaking which is more family-wide, more casual and slap-dash and thus more amenable to two- and three-year-old skills.

In many other fields, our way of equalizing opportunity for children and adults has taken the form of admitting children very early to areas of life formerly regarded as sacred to adults. Radio and TV give children access to the whole gamut of world news, to crime and scandal which formerly could be banished from the eyes and ears of the young. Small children are dressed like miniature adults—with long pants for boys and "mother and daughter dresses" for girls—or else they are clothed in the regressive dreams of fathers who had fantasies of becoming cowboys and of mothers who had fantasies of marrying cowboys. The courtship habits which once began in the teens now begin in the sixth and seventh grades and have as their logical sequel boredom with dating, going steady, and early marriage. In matters of money, older standards in which children had an allowance of a nickel a week and one toy for Christmas have been replaced by allowances running into dollars and toys which cost hundreds. Under these circumstances, it is not surprising that juvenile crime has increased together with juvenile precocity in other fields once reserved for adults.

In fact, American attempts to extend to children full human rights have taken the same forms as have their attempts to extend human rights to any previously disadvantaged group of adults. Having "rights" entitles one to be treated like a middle-aged, white, Protestant, American male, the only group in American life not sometimes spelled with the capital accorded—as are

Youth, Women, Labor, the Negro, *et cetera.* Mothers admonish their three-month-old babies, "Be careful, don't pull mother's hair!" Babies of six months are told not to spill their milk, and two-year-olds are taught to telephone. In spite of an ever lengthening period of schooling, which is the complement of the increasing complexity of our culture, we are also increasingly trying to make children as much as possible like adults.

Some Special Treatment

There is, however, one sphere in which children, as children, are given special treatment, a kind of amnesty from the behavior required of adults. This is in the area of impulse gratification. Selective absorption of part of the findings of Freudian psychology has initiated a period in which children are no longer subjected to rigorous training in bodily control—whether it is in table manners, in toilet training, in sitting still, in refraining from pushing, punching, and shouting, or interrupting an adult conversation, or in careening as a group from the middle of a crowded subway car or thru the once hushed halls of an art museum.

A Way To Define Civilization

Now, one way in which any civilization—a primitive tribe or a modern civilized society—can be defined is by seeing how each year of life in childhood, each stage of development thruout the life cycle, is dealt with. So doing, we can compare societies in which childhood is hard, adulthood is easier, and old age is highly honored with other societies in which childhood and old age, as closer to heaven in a reincarnation cycle, are preferred to middle age, and with still others in which life mounts steadily to an early middle-age climax to deteriorate thereafter. Looking at American childhood and youth, a French psychoanalyst, who has had American patients, has recently written[1] that she feels that while American children have a much happier childhood with far freer impulse gratification than French children, once the age of sexual maturity is reached the situation is reversed. Full responsibility for impulse control descends suddenly on American children who have had little experience in disciplining their more childish desires, while French children, accustomed to severe early discipline, find life becoming more rewarding with young adulthood.

Another way of approaching the same question is to ask which aspects of any age or stage are emphasized: is it a child's innocence or his ignorance, his unrealized life potential or his social unimportance, his ability to learn or his failure to have mastered adult skills, his openness to the mystery of the universe or his lack of formed taste? Are children between the ages of school entrance and puberty dreaded as little savages, cherished as brighter than they ever will be again, or are they regarded simply as immature little creatures to be shut up in school and taught?

All these ways of looking at children are based on at least partial reality. For children are both innocent and ignorant, curious and destructive, endowed with a capacity for fresh and lovely perceptions and without a disciplined appreciation of the arts. And it may well be asked whether, while we are working to give a child a full place in society, we should not also be trying to make as full an appraisal as possible of all the capacities of each age. Little babies are fragile, do need constant care and can learn a great deal from their continuous experience of adult care that will stand them in good stead later. The ceaseless vigilance which is inappropriate in the mother of a four-year-old is appropriate for the two-year-old. Six-year-olds not only are smaller and weaker than adults, have impulses which seem urgent and uncontrollable and attention spans which are short, but they also are capable of a kind of learning of whole systems of thought which the increasing particularization of later years will reduce.

For Each Stage of Life

So it would seem to be worthwhile to consider whether, in our generous desire to treat children as well or better than adults, we are not perhaps being indiscriminate and failing, therefore, to provide for each stage of life the full

[1] Margaret Mead and Martha Wolfenstein, editors. *Childhood in Contemporary Cultures.* "French and American Children as Seen by a French Child Analyst," by F. Dolto. University of Chicago Press. 1955. 23:408-423.

gamut of experience which a child of that age is most fully able to appreciate. Such provision would mean placing less emphasis upon exact chronological age and more emphasis upon stages which span two or three years, varying with different children, and would include more diversification in children's experience from year to year. This could be accomplished as easily—perhaps more easily—by increasing the contexts in the educational situation in which children of different ages do things together, and so experience their differences in strength and capacity, as it could by keying the curriculum specifically to each class where qualitative diversity is likely to be sacrificed to mere quantitative differences.

Thruout the world today there is a beginning realization that we are entering an era in which greater demands than ever before are going to be made on human ability to learn, to teach, to execute, to invent, to dream, to relate to other men and to the universe. We are told that no one now uses more than a tenth of his brain capacity—at the best. We know that the difference between Stone Age men and ourselves lies not in our innate capacities but in the ways we have learned to cumulate knowledge and teach it to our children. So there is no doubt of our inherent ability to take on the great range of new learnings. Our greatest resource is not just the next generation—a self-evident truth—but is to be found in the unused capacities of childhood as a period of life. Mankind fights a long battle with tendencies towards disorganization, concentrating energy to produce, in select places, higher forms of organization. In our present emergency, with the urgent need to develop skills to deal with an interconnecting world supplied with immense sources of energy which can be either constructive or destructive, we need to tap new sources of rapid invention. If we could accord to the imagination of childhood the same sort of recognition and underwriting that we have given childhood impulses and childhood rights, we could go a long way towards bridging this gap between our resources and our ability to use them.

Reading Suggestions

These reading suggestions are offered for those who would like to delve further into some of the ideas about contemporary society put forth in this issue. Included here are references to accompany Margaret Mead's article on the place of children in our culture, p. 16, and John Dawson's article on government, p. 12.

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A Principal *WAS* To Spank

JOSEPH O. CHANDLER

Two little boys, recently launched on their educational careers, were discussing the work of the various people around the school.

"The teacher is to teach us to learn," one said gravely.

"The janitor is to sweep up our messes," the other added.

"We got a principal, too. What does *he* do?" asked the first little boy, his voice expressing doubt that the principal was of any real use to the place.

The second little boy had older brothers and sisters who had gone the long long road of education and he was much the wiser for it. After due thought he said, with great assurance, "A principal is to spank."

The idea that "a principal is to spank" did not come as a product of the little boy's lack of information. Too often the principal's office has been the final step in a "bad boy's" punishment.

Most educators today would like to see the verb "is" changed to past tense so it could truthfully be said that a principal *was* to spank. Happily there are many evidences that the concept of the principal's role in his school is no longer that of a corporal punishment machine.

At the close of a parents' meeting, a young father approached the principal and they talked in friendly fashion about interests far removed from education. They chatted about fishing experiences and the best spots for big game hunting. They got into many other areas of mutual interest and were enjoying themselves immensely. At last the young man's wife came up and suggested that the principal might like a chance to talk with other people.

The young father said, "You know, honey, for years the only time I got near a principal was when I was in trouble. I was enjoying the chance to talk to a principal without having a feeling of guilt."

The young man was no doubt speaking lightly but he had struck a sensitive spot in the philosophy of the emerging role of the school principal as a master-counselor.

The principal's office should be a friendly place, a place where boys and girls feel they can come for help and advice. It should be a place where teachers can come to discuss difficult guidance problems and where technics and procedures of guidance can be developed. It should be a place where parents feel welcome to discuss problems regarding the educational experiences of their children. But too often, just when a person feels he is making real headway in developing an office atmosphere of this type, a flash of the old stereotype crops up to spoil the results.

Parents are often the worst offenders in labeling the principal's office as the den of the big, bad wolf. A new parent brings little Jimmy (let's leave Johnny out of this!) into the office to enrol him. The principal is working in the back office but can overhear the conversation as the secretary proceeds with the enrolment. Being the friendly type, he comes out and introduces himself. The ensuing conversation goes something like this:

Mother: "Jimmy, this is your principal. Say 'hello' to Mr. Blank."

Jimmy: (Pausing in his examination of the timing system and withdrawing the hand which was on its way to the Room 11 buzzer.) "Hi!"

Mother: "Jimmy, you come right back to this side of the counter! I certainly hope you aren't sent down to see Mr. Blank *very* often. You know what happens to little boys in the principal's office!"

If Jimmy overcomes the hurdle put up by his mother's concept of the principal's office, he has still another one to meet. Another great obstacle

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to the development of the guidance atmosphere in the principal's office is set up by the teachers themselves, bless them. Regardless of how much the philosophy of the principal as counselor is discussed in staff meetings, there invariably comes the time when some overburdened teacher has worn out her bag of tricks and uses the old standby threat of "Jimmy, if you don't behave, I'll just have to send you to the principal."

Then there is the occasional teacher who is quite sure "the principal's office is to sit." This is the teacher who sends Jimmy to the office with no more information than a message verbally delivered by the contrite youth to the effect that "teacher said for me to sit here till she sent for me."

Since the principal's office is the hub of the educational offering of a school, it is definitely not a place "to sit." It must necessarily be a business-like and efficient place. Nevertheless, it is possible to develop a warm and friendly atmosphere in that office. If a teacher needs help in developing guidance procedures for individuals in her room, she should feel free to discuss the problems with her principal or to seek expert help, working thru the principal. On the negative side, she should never use the principal or the principal's office as a threat.

Occasionally, an uncontrollable situation arises with which a teacher needs immediate help. In cases of this type, the teacher should summon the principal to her room where he can take whatever immediate steps are necessary. This action is only a temporary expedient and should be followed by more judicious guidance procedures when the heat of crisis has cooled.

In some instances, a teacher and the principal may decide that a principal-child consultation is indicated. When this approach is used, the principal has the opportunity to review background information, and, consequently, should be in a position to do a helpful job of counseling. Children sent to the office for pre-planned counseling need not necessarily present problems of adjustment. They may be sent for much needed words of encouragement, or for commendation on outstanding performance. Perhaps a special effort could be made to remove the aura of punishment from the principal's office by sending children to the office to share commendable work more often than they are sent for disciplinary purposes. A constant aim to "accentuate the positive and eliminate the negative" does wonders toward changing for all time the idea that "a principal is to spank."

The little boys who discussed their ideas of the principal in terms of spanking and office punishment will one day be fathers. If constructive counseling rather than muscle-man administration of corporal punishment is the help to be sought from the principal, and if that goal is the generally accepted one when these boys are fathers, their sons might well have a conversation like this:

"Well, I know what the teacher is for—and the janitors. But the principal—look at his pretty office! What does *he* do?"

"I guess you haven't any big brothers like I have or you'd know! The principal is to help a fellow figure out stuff. And a principal is to give you a whack on the back sometimes and tell you he kind of likes to see you around! That's what a principal is for!"

When that time comes, we can truly say,

"A principal *WAS* to spank."

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Small Group Guidance Conferences

ROBERT W. GINGRICH

In an effort to increase the guidance services for pupils in the elementary grades a plan was developed recently at Central School in Mamaroneck, New York, for small group guidance conferences to be held with the principal. Every fourth-, fifth-, and sixth-grade pupil is a member of a small group (not to exceed twelve) to meet with the principal in his office to talk over certain problems which seem important to children at these levels.

Early in September, the principal asked teachers, students, and parents for suggested questions or topics which small groups of students might discuss in the principal's office. It appeared that the sixth-graders were mainly interested in the experiences and problems they might have when they enter junior high school. To help these children make the transition to junior high school, it was decided to try to acquaint them gradually thruout the school year with the details of the seventh-grade program.

At the first meetings, considerable time was spent discussing the cumulative record system. This was done to help pupils understand the kind of records which go with them to the junior high school. As a basis for discussion, the actual records of two students (using fictitious names) were presented. One record was very good, the other very poor. In these discussions desirable traits and attitudes were emphasized. The discussions were carried into the field of employment, and the students seemed surprised to learn that employers are just as concerned about their employees' attitudes and behavior patterns as they are about school marks. It was emphasized that the habits they are forming now are likely to be the habits they will have in later life.

These meetings were followed by others pertaining to the organization of classes in the junior high school, subject matter, physical plant, *et cetera*, culminating in a visit to the junior high school.

The principal was anxious to have more parent participation in planning the group guidance program and, therefore, included the following statement in one of his bulletins to parents.

> In line with the general idea of explaining guidance in the elementary school, the principal is having the sixth-grade students meet with him in small groups to discuss the importance of their cumulative record for entrance into the junior high school. He hopes to meet with other upper-grade students in the near future to discuss with them certain problems pertinent to their age and grade level. Appropriate general topics to discuss with fourth- and fifth-grade students might be study habits and character building. Suggestions from parents would be welcome in regard to particular problems which might need an individual approach, or could be discussed in small student groups.

The principal also asked the parents attending a child study group for suggestions regarding topics to be discussed with fourth- and fifth-grade students. Topics such as the following were suggested:

1. Television—type of program and the amount of time a child should spend watching TV
2. Gang membership
3. Doing homework assignments
4. Type of clothing appropriate for school
5. Proper bedtime
6. Home responsibilities

In the small group conferences with fourth- and fifth-grade pupils, the principal read the list of topics suggested by the parents and teachers and asked for additional suggestions from the students. The group was then asked to select the topic which they wished to discuss. After a topic

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was selected, the principal led the group to define specific problems pertaining to that topic. Following are examples of student's questions:

Television

What is a "good" program?
What is wrong with "crime programs"?
Should we be permitted to watch TV when guests are present?
How much time should we be allowed for TV?

Homework

Why do we have to have homework?
Should homework be finished before we see any TV programs?
Should the TV or radio be off while we are doing homework?
If something special comes up, is it all right to skip homework?
Should homework be done right after school, or should it be done after dinner?

Bedtime

Should we be permitted to stay up for a good TV show?
Should there be a different bedtime for Friday and Saturday nights?
We know when we are sleepy; why should anyone tell us when to go to bed?

The pupils seemed glad to have an opportunity to discuss their problems. They also seemed pleased that the principal was willing to give time to discuss their problems with them. The values resulting from the discussions seem to lie (1) in children's learning how to understand and analyze their own problems; (2) in their learning a "grownup" as opposed to a "babyish" approach to problems; (3) in a good relationship between pupils and principal; and (4) in an emphasis on the school's responsibility for social, emotional, moral, and spiritual guidance.

We feel that this plan of small group conferences with the principal not only benefits the boys and girls of our school, but also offers a splendid opportunity for developing good public relations. The parents like to feel that the school, including the principal personally, is taking a direct personal interest in their children.

The program described is only a part of the total guidance program. All school personnel from principal to custodians are considered as having guidance responsibilities. Classroom teachers, psychologist, nurse, and special teachers—all play an important part in the guidance work.

A sound, workable guidance program for an elementary school must be based on a broad philosophy of education. In summary, there seem to be several principles that may well be kept in mind.

1. Someone, perhaps the principal, should serve as coordinator of the guidance program.
2. There should be both individual and group guidance.
3. Every staff member should be considered as having guidance responsibilities.
4. The guidance program should be developed thru the cooperative efforts of parents, students, and staff.
5. There should be continuity.
6. The school should recognize its limitations and be able to identify the serious emotional problems which should be referred to agencies that can provide specialized help.

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Accent on Youth

KATHLEEN R. COMISKEY

Today, in some communities in the nation, children enter the first grade at approximately five and one-half years of age. Many of these children are not yet emotionally capable of fitting into the usual first-grade program, and there is, therefore, a tendency to raise the age of entry.

To many of us, the age of five and one-half seems to be questionably young for a first exposure to an organized educational program. But do you realize that just about a century ago some children entered school at an even earlier age?

In the early part of the nineteenth century, school teachers in Dartmouth, Massachusetts, had to cope with a wide range of ages in their classes. The 1839 minutes of the Dartmouth School Committee mention that there were 86 children under four years of age attending school. Since the younger children were more likely to attend school in summer than in winter and the number of scholars of all ages in school in summer was 786, it is quite safe to say that more than 10 percent were under the age of four years. Perhaps this helps to explain the extraordinary number of absences, for altho 786 children were enrolled in school the average number of pupils present was only 488.

An 1841 memorandum kept by a young teacher states that she had 25 pupils. Five of these were three years old, two were eighteen, and the rest of the class ran the gamut of all ages between three and eighteen.

The following year this same teacher had 30 pupils. Seven of them were four years old, and three were only two years old. Mere babies made up one-third of the enrolment. Obviously, a considerable amount of the teacher's time must have been devoted to nursery work. To be successful it would seem that the teacher would have had to be a composite of a mother, a nurse, and a teacher, and surely she needed to have the patience of Job!

Some benevolent voters endeavored to induce the next year's Town Meeting to raise the entrance age of pupils in order to keep the schools from being turned into day nurseries. But the citizens were not yet ready to make this change, as the records of the 1843 Town Meeting show.

"Voted not to exclude children from attending school under four years of age."

In 1843 there were 63 children under four years of age. Evidence that the members of the Dartmouth School Committee disapproved of this "early-to-school" policy is contained in their minutes:

"We believe our schools are injured by admitting children too young to them, especially during the winter term. Children under four years of age should in our opinion be prohibited such a privilege."

This opinion was, perhaps, shared by others because by 1846 only 29 of these tender-aged children were in school. However, in 1866 there were 41 pupils under five years, and as late as 1908 the annual school report listed five children only four years of age. It was not until 1909, when the percent of first-grade failures was very

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high, that six years became the minimum age for embarking on formal school education in Dartmouth.

I did not realize the universality of this custom until I read Samuel Hall's *Lectures on School-Keeping* published in 1830. This book presents a series of talks given by the author to prospective teachers. In one of them, he says:

"The first remarks I shall make will regard the youngest children placed under your care. These are usually from three to seven years old, tho sometimes younger. The first object at which you should aim is to please them—to make the school as pleasant to them as possible. In order to do this, you must consider what they are, and how their attention can be excited, how they are pleased, and in what manner they may most easily be governed . . . The children should not be too long confined, but should be permitted to go out and march, or play under the care of a monitor whom you may place over them. While they are out of the schoolroom they may be taught to count, add, subtract, multiply or divide, and this will not tire, when they are at the same time engaged in play."[1]

If the school membership had consisted of only very young children the teacher's problem would not have been unusually difficult, but to run a school in which pupils ranged in age from three years to eighteen years must indeed have been a baffling problem.

And when the tired teacher of that day went home at night she may have gone to a home which was not of her own choosing. So, at any rate, we might gather from action reported tersely in some old school records at Milton, Vermont:

"Voted that the teacher be boarded out to the lowest bidder."

It must have been one of the less fortunately placed teachers—this one, however, a Dartmouth teacher in the nineteenth century—who said: "I had beans 20 meals a week and the only reason I didn't have beans 21 meals is that no supper was served Sunday night."

[1] Samuel Hall. *Lectures on School-Keeping*. Richardson, Lord and Holbrook. Boston, Mass. 1830.

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Open House—Family Style

Open house is a time-honored custom, but we found that a slight variation added a great deal of interest and was very effective public relations-wise.

Instead of serving the usual punch and cookies to the patrons who visited the school, we decided to make our open house a mealtime occasion, family style. Each family in attendance brought a covered dish. The noon lunch hour lasted longer than the normal time, with people coming as their own family schedule required. As the visitors arrived, the food supply was continually replenished. Teachers chose different hours to eat, so that some were in the lunchroom and some were in their classrooms thruout the visiting period.

A very pleasant atmosphere was established during the lunch hour, with exchange of recipes, talk about children, and other topics of conversation bringing school and lay people together in a friendly manner. Then as parents visited their children's classrooms, interpreting the school program seemed easier. Following the room visitation, a short program was presented in the auditorium.

All in all, we felt that our family style open house was a real success. The parents were delighted by what they had seen—both in the classrooms and on the stage, the children were pleased to have shared in the experience, and there were many requests to repeat this kind of activity another time.

Audrey Herod, Principal
South Elementary School
Rossville, Georgia

Mother Mans the Clinic

Editor's Note: When we asked for a description of the health clinic in Elouise Fry's Nashville school, we fully expected to receive just that. We scarcely anticipated *two* clinic stories—each of them excellent. But there was good reason. As Mrs. Fry wrote us: "Grades four thru six had this subject as their homework assignment. Then each room combined their ideas and prepared one paper. These nine papers were given to one of our mothers who writes for a church bulletin—and here is the result. I am also enclosing one class paper just to give you an idea of the type of thing we did.

Because each of these stories has its own flavor, we're using portions of them both here. The children's paper sets the scene with an anecdote about how a typical youngster keeps the school clinic in business, while the mother's account relates just how it is that "mother mans the clinic."

"Look, kids, no hands!" shouts Eddie, as he speeds into the school driveway on his bike. The bell rings and in his haste Eddie forgets to apply his brakes. He sideswipes the bicycle stand and sails over his handle bars in a real third-grade boy's nose dive. With his nose bleeding and his elbows resembling two ground beef patties, Eddie is helped to his feet by friends.

If Eddie attended some schools, he would be given emergency first aid by his teacher, with the result that the third grade would not get started off smoothly and on time. By the time Eddie's teacher got back to her number one job of teaching, the result could easily be a disorganized class and a distraught teacher.

Since Eddie goes to Dan Mills School in Nashville, Tennessee, his teacher is able to turn Eddie over to the school clinic and give her entire attention to her class, knowing Eddie will be properly cared for. In a short time Eddie will return to his room, his nose decorated with merthiolate and his elbows neatly bandaged. Even the two

missing buttons on his shirt, another casualty in the accident, will have been replaced.

This clinic at Dan Mills School is sponsored by the Parent-Teacher Association under the supervision of the school principal. Besides giving top-notch first aid to a free-wheeling Eddie, the clinic serves as an important link between the home and the school.

The mothers' concern for this phase of their school program is demonstrated by their willingness and, in most instances, their eagerness to serve as clinic mothers. The schedule for the clinic is set up at the beginning of each school year by the PTA Chairman of Room Mothers. She notifies each room mother of the two-week period for which she is responsible. The room mother then arranges for a different mother to be present in the clinic for each day of the allotted two-week period.

The clinic is composed of two rooms and a bathroom. The receiving room is equipped with a comfortable chair and with reading matter for slack moments. In the clinic room itself are two leatherette beds and a fully-equipped first-aid cabinet. Posted on the wall are seven simple health rules to guide the clinic mother. Among these are instructions to give first aid but no medicine, and to send home children who have sore throats, temperatures, and upset stomachs. A ledger is kept on the table for signing in for duty. There is also an extension telephone and a list of every child's name, his home address, and telephone numbers where parents can be reached when arrangements must be made to send a child home. When a child needs to go home, both his parents and the school office are notified. If the parents are unable to come for him, a taxi is called.

Many times, naturally, there are no sick children to be comforted, no temperatures to be taken, no bruised arms or legs to be bandaged. Then the clinic mother assists with school office work. This activity helps her to become better acquainted with the inside workings of the school. At lunch time, the clinic mother is a guest in the lunchroom where she joins her child and his friends for lunch. The noon hour provides a grand opportunity for first-hand observation of the school lunch program.

For children, teachers, and principal, the clinic is a practical answer to the everyday accidents and ailments that can be so disruptive to a school program. For the mothers, it is a way to know the school better. Perhaps the value of the clinic program parent-wise can best be expressed in these words of one mother: "Serving in the clinic is just a practical way of saying that I'm concerned with today's school program and today's educational trends. I want to put my concern into action, to know teachers better, and to bring the school and the home into closer relationship."

The children, too, take great pride in their clinic. One fourth-grade boy was even inspired to put his pride into verse:

Our clinic is a happy place.
It's like a first-aid base.
When you are sick,
It makes you tick.
Because here is care
That's quite sincere.

ELOUISE FRY, Principal
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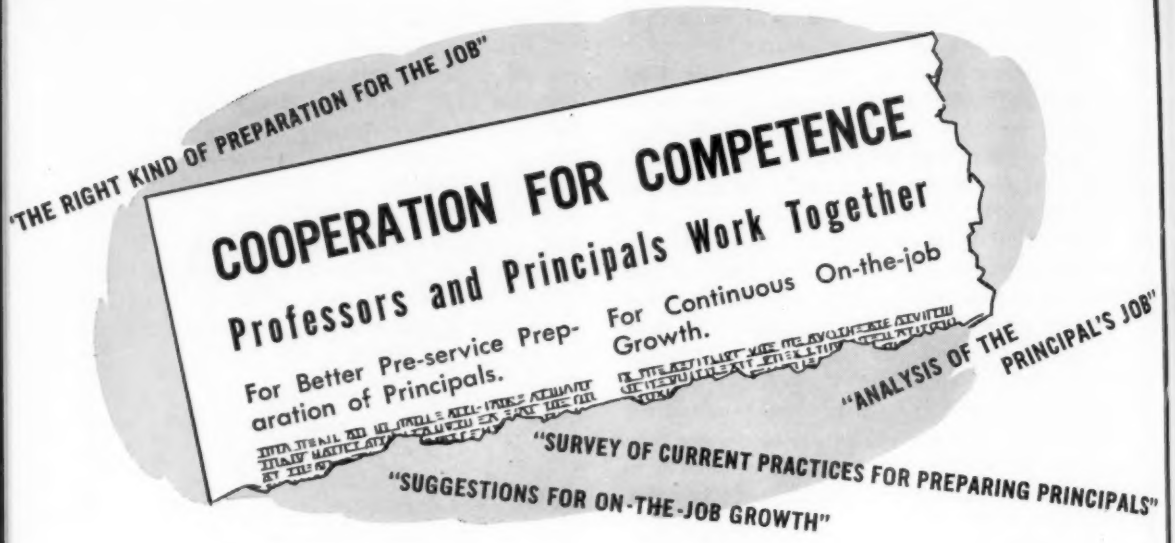

Cooperation for competence may take any number of forms. In some states, special committees have been formed to coordinate a long-range program touching on many areas of the elementary school principalship; in others, statewide conferences are being held at which principals, professors, superintendents, and personnel from state departments of education can talk over the problems of the principalship; in still others, surveys and studies have been conducted on various phases of the elementary school principalship—certification, salaries, secretarial help, duties and responsibilities, in-service activities, and so forth. All of these activities—activities which have been noticeably increasing during recent months—contribute to a fuller understanding of the nature of the principalship. And, in turn, they should lead to improved preparation for the job.

During the course of the Department's project on preparation for the principalship, many of these activities have been reported in THE NATIONAL ELEMENTARY PRINCIPAL. In both this feature, "Cooperation for Competence," and in the association news section, there have been descriptions of state and local conferences, surveys, studies, and committee activities dealing with this area. In this issue, you will find more news about cooperation for competence: in association news, p. 31, reports of surveys in Indiana, Massachusetts, New York, and Washington; and in the following columns, reports of a number of special state committees and conferences.

Massachusetts: In November, the national Department sponsored a two-day regional conference on preparation for the principalship for the New England area. The Massachusetts Elementary School Principals Association is now continuing the work begun at that meeting thru its own state activities.

A committee from the Association has been meeting with the dean of the school of education of one of the large universities in the state to plan ways they can cooperate to improve preparation programs. Currently under consideration are the possibilities of setting up special courses for principals in different parts of the state and initiating research projects on the principalship.

At their state conference in March, the Massachusetts ESPA focused attention on the status of the principalship—inservice training, preparation, certification requirements, teaching versus supervising principalships, and merit salary schedules for principals. Discussion groups were organized geographically so participants could plan further action for their own areas. The state organization

hopes that a number of new local elementary school principals associations will be formed as a result of this meeting.

Missouri: The Missouri Department of Elementary School Principals has established a special committee on preparation for the principalship. This committee is a large one, including principals, college presidents, personnel from the state department of education, professors of education, superintendents of schools, and leaders of other related educational organizations within the state.

One of the major activities of this group has been to plan a special Missouri conference on preparation for the elementary school principalship. Held last February, the meeting was designed to promote cooperative action among the Missouri DESP, colleges and universities, the state department of education, and other interested organizations. During this meeting, delegates to the Midwest regional conference in Indianapolis, sponsored by the national Department, reported on the recommendations which had been made there for further action by state associations.

Texas: At the spring conference of the Texas Elementary Principals and Supervisors Association, co-sponsored by the University of Texas, one morning will be devoted to professional associations and technics by which they can improve the status of their members. Participants are scheduled to hear a report on "What Elementary Principals and Supervisors Associations Are Doing in Other States" and then to break into discussion groups organized according to the eleven districts in Texas and chaired by the district presidents. In these group sessions, three topics will come in for primary consideration: 1) the function and organization of professional groups at the state and district levels; 2) technics for improving both state and district organizations; 3) ways of furthering the professional status of individual elementary principals and supervisors.

During the past year, Texas has set up a special committee to direct activities to improve the preparation and status of elementary school principals. This group hopes to gain greater consideration for the needs of elementary school principals in the formulation of certification standards, salary schedules, and similar policies on a statewide basis.

Vermont: The Vermont Elementary School Principals Association is taking a direct approach to the matter of improved preparation. The theme of their coming spring conference is "Preparing for the Principalship." A number of representatives from the ranks of college professors and school superintendents are being invited to participate in the meeting. The group hopes that the result will be the development by colleges in the state of special workshops and courses better oriented to meeting the particular needs of elementary school principals.

Regional Conferences

On the national level, the Department of Elementary School Principals, NEA, has sponsored five regional conferences on preparation for the principalship during the past two years. These have been in the following areas: Midwest, New England, Northwest, Southeast, and South Central.

There remain two more regional conferences. The first, for the Middle Atlantic states, is scheduled for Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, May 2-3. The other will be held in Minneapolis, Minnesota, May 12-13, for the North Central states of Iowa, Minnesota, Nebraska, North Dakota, South Dakota, and Wisconsin.

A small planning committee in each of these areas is helping the headquarters office arrange these meetings. Members of the committee for the Middle Atlantic conference were announced in the February issue of this magazine. The following persons are serving as members of the Planning Committee for the North Central area meeting: Robert W. Langerak, Principal, Greenwood and Hanawalt Schools, Des Moines, Iowa, *chairman;* Madison Brewer, Professor of Education, University of Nebraska, Lincoln, Nebraska; Vincent Dodge, Principal, Roosevelt School, Fargo, North Dakota; Otto E. Domian, Professor of Education, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minnesota; Laurel M. Pennock, Principal, Jefferson School, Rochester, Minnesota; Leroy Peterson, Professor of Education, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wisconsin; and Lucille D. Rosenow, Principal, Meadowbrook School, Minneapolis, Minnesota.

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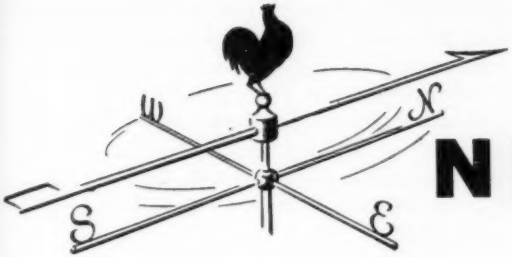

NEWS LOCAL-STATE-NATIONAL

State and Local

CALIFORNIA

The California Elementary School Administrators Association is now emphasizing the development of an extensive publications program. A Publications Committee has been organized to facilitate and coordinate (but not prepare) all CESAA publications other than the monthly bulletin.

As a basis for judging material for publication, the Committee has adopted these criteria: 1) To what extent does the material contribute to elementary education and to the purposes of the CESAA? 2) Is there a need for it? Is it pertinent? Timely? 3) Does it cover new ground or is it a review? 4) In what form should it be published? 5) How does it fit into the publications program of the Association?

Currently, the CESAA is publishing a series of monographs as a follow-up of the statewide Cooperative Study on Education which the Association has spearheaded. Involving thousands of lay and professional people thruout California, the Study centered around the question: "What are the total needs for supplies and equipment in a good elementary school?" The first monograph, providing a definition of "a good elementary school," was issued last year. (*The Characteristics of the Good Elementary School.* $.75.)

Just recently published are two more monographs, *Instructional Supplies and Equipment for the Four- and Five-Year Olds of the Good Elementary School* and *Instructional Supplies and Equipment for the Five- and Six-Year Olds of the Good Elementary School.* ($1.50 each.) Each of these 70-odd page monographs begins with a statement of educational purposes and then recommends experiences and necessary kinds and amounts of supplies and equipment to achieve them. Subject-matter areas specifically treated are art, language arts, mathematics, music, science, and social studies. To be released this spring are two more monographs on supplies and equipment—for seven- and eight-year-olds and for the elementary school library. Eventually, this series will cover requirements for all age levels, from kindergarten thru the eighth grade.

Orders for CESAA publications may be sent to the Association, 693 Sutter Street, San Francisco, California.

COLORADO

In Colorado this year, the Director of Elementary Education from the state department has been working closely with state and local elementary school principals associations. Serving as a field representative, he has attended many group meetings and has helped to coordinate professional association activities.

Another helpful move for the CESPA this year has been the expansion of attendance at board meetings to provide for increased communication among the officers of the various sectional groups in the state.

INDIANA

Salaries and secretarial services for Indiana elementary school principals will soon come in for a thoro study by the Indiana Association of Elementary School Principals. In response to the vote at a recent business meeting to launch such

a survey, the state president has appointed a Committee on School Finance as Relating to the Elementary Principal. A staff member from Indiana University will assist with the research.

MASSACHUSETTS

Quincy: The elementary school principals of Quincy, Massachusetts, have just prepared a comprehensive 15-page report on "The Improvement of Instruction Through the Establishment of Single Building Principalships and Clerical Assistance." It comes as the result of a five-year study made by the local principals roundtable. Working to gain a clearer picture of the principalship, they have, in the words of the report, "pooled their knowledge, read recent literature in the field, talked with fellow principals at conferences, visited neighboring schools, attended professional meetings, and experimented within their schools."

First pointing out the strategic role of the elementary school, the report details the professional and clerical duties of Quincy principals. It concludes that they are "devoting too small a portion of their time to the supervision of instruction and too great a portion . . . to general administration, personnel work, and clerical duties." At the present time, there are only 14 principals and one part-time clerk in the city's 21 elementary schools. "Real economy," the group states, "is practiced when it is possible for the principal to deputize clerical duties and spend full time in one building. . . ."

As an immediate step, the report recommends that one full-time principal and four clerks be added. On a long-range basis, it asks that: 1) all schools of approximately 300 pupils or 10 classrooms have a full-time principal; 2) all principals have some clerical help. The board has accepted these recommendations in part, agreeing to employ one more principal and one more clerk. Single copies available from E. T. Wilson, Hunting School, Quincy 69, Massachusetts.

NEW YORK

New York City: An outstanding analysis of principals' salaries has been made recently under

PROFESSIONAL PROBLEMS OF TEACHERS

By Albert J. Huggett and T. M. Stinnett

An up-to-date examination of ratings, retirement systems, contract and tenure, professional advancement, certification, salary policies, etc.

1956 *468 pp.* *$5.25*

SPEECH CORRECTION IN THE SCHOOLS

By Jon Eisenson and Mardel Ogilvie

An introductory book to aid the teacher in dealing with classroom speech problems. Designed for those without speech training.

1957 *288 pp.* *$4.25*

DEVELOPING A HIGH-SCHOOL CORE PROGRAM

By Lucille A. Lurry and Elsie J. Alberty

Practical direction and discussion of principles, practices, and problems for those concerned with developing a core program in the high school.

Available May 1957

CREATIVE AND MENTAL GROWTH, Third Edition

By Viktor Lowenfeld

This important book for art teachers deals with every stage of the creative growth of the child, stressing the psychology behind creative productivity.

Available late spring 1957

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the auspices of the New York [City] Principals Association. Conducted by a management consultant firm, the survey is contained in a 40-page report called "Salaries of School Principals in New York City." Altho tied to educational policies and salary schedules in the City of New York, the report contains much of universal applicability. As the Association's president has stated, it should "find its way into the mainstream of current educational thinking thruout the country, for the subject concerns not only the New York City schools but also all of the nation's schools."

With undeniable logic and careful attention to sound educational concepts, the report points out the fallaciousness of many of the reasons commonly advanced for elementary principals receiving less pay than their junior high and secondary school counterparts. Specifically, this includes the analysis of such factors as school size, school organization and level, staff assistance, job content, and administrative difficulty. Another very valuable feature is the appendix, reprinting from a doctoral dissertation an exhaustive list of principals' duties and responsibilities.

Copies of this study, at $1.00 each, may be obtained from Miss Margaret Cribbin, Executive Secretary, New York Principals Association, Public School 118, Queens, Hollis 12, New York.

OHIO

This summer, the Ohio DESP is cooperating with Kent State University in sponsoring a two-week workshop, July 29-August 9, 1957. Theme of the meeting will be "A Forward Look at Elementary Education: How the Elementary Principal Can Contribute to the Improvement of Instruction." A number of nationally known speakers and consultants will attend the workshop. For further information, write the College of Education at Kent State University.

TENNESSEE

The Tennessee DESP has just recently distributed to its members copies of a new *Membership Bulletin*. Its purpose is to give Tennessee elementary school principals information about their state and national professional organizations. Included are a brief history of the state associa-

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tion, its objectives for the future, and basic information about the services of the national Department.

WASHINGTON

During the last few years, two regional principals associations in Washington have been making studies of the way principals spend their time. Now the state organization, the Washington Elementary-Junior High School Principals Association, has published its findings in an eight-page report, "How the Principal Spends His Time." In it are a compilation of the findings and a series of resulting recommendations made by the state organization. Among these are the following:

1) A head teacher with administrative duties, having five teachers or less, should have a minimum of three hours of competent secretarial help per day.

2) The teaching principal who has from six to nine teachers should teach not more than one-half time and should have a minimum of four hours of competent secretarial help per day.

3) The principal who has from eight to ten teachers should be a full-time principal and should have a minimum of four hours of competent secretarial help per day.

4) The full-time principal who has from ten to fourteen teachers should have a minimum of six hours of competent secretarial help per day.

5) The principal with more than fourteen teachers should have full-time secretarial help.

6) The principal with twenty teachers or more should have an administrative assistant. (It is further recommended that new buildings . . . should not exceed eighteen classroom units.)

Copies of the complete report are available at 15¢ each from Joseph P. Lassoie, Executive Secretary, 1643 East Miller Street, Olympia, Washington.

National Department

REPRINT ON FOREIGN LANGUAGES

Reprints are now available of the two articles on foreign languages in the elementary school which appeared in the February 1957 issue of this

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magazine. Both these articles, "Foreign Languages and Intercultural Understanding" by Theodore Andersson and "Foreign Languages in the Grades: A Caution" by William R. Parker, are being sold as a single unit at 10¢ a copy. Send orders, with payment enclosed, to the Department of Elementary School Principals, NEA, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington 6, D. C.

NEA BUILDING PROGRAM

In January, construction was started on the third and final section of the new NEA Educational Center in Washington. The contract for the building was signed the first part of December when the lowest bid submitted—$3,313,000—was accepted. This section will contain more space than the first two sections combined and will house the cafeteria, main lobby, auditorium, and similar facilities.

LOCAL ASSOCIATION NEWSLETTER

The second issue of the Department's special newsletter for local elementary school principals associations was distributed in March. In it were many suggestions on resources available from the NEA and the national Department which would be helpful to local groups.

Copies of the newsletter were mailed to the presidents of the 450 city, county, and district groups which are on record in the national office. Any local elementary school principals association president who did not receive a copy may receive one by writing to the headquarters office, giving the name of the organization and his name and address.

PLANNING COMMITTEE

The Department's Planning Committee, originally established by the Executive Committee in 1954, will finish its business in May. The group is scheduled to hold a meeting in Washington on May 16-17 to prepare a final report on their activities.

The Planning Committee's function during the last three years has been to study the Department's program and to make recommendations on its improvement and development to the Executive Committee. These recommendations will

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be considered by the Executive Committee in making decisions about future activities of the national organization.

ELECTION RESULTS

Ballots cast in the annual election by mail of Department officers were tallied in February. Elected to the Executive Committee were the following people:

President-elect: Margaret W. Efraemson, Principal, Walton School, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania
Vice-president: James M. May, Principal, Holmes School, Tulsa, Oklahoma
Members-at-large (to serve three years): Lois W. Taylor, Principal, Miami Park Elementary School, Miami, Florida; and Amber M. Wilson, Principal, UCLA Demonstration School, Los Angeles, California.

Approximately 13,900 persons—active members of the Department at the time of the voting in January—received ballots. Of these, about 5,500, or 40 percent, cast votes. This represents a considerable drop from the nearly 50 percent return last year. The percentage of Department members casting ballots from each state is given below:

Alabama	37%	Nevada	43%
Arizona	45	New Hampshire	24
Arkansas	66	New Jersey	39
California	40	New Mexico	44
Colorado	40	New York	34
Connecticut	47	North Carolina	40
Delaware	46	North Dakota	32
Dist. of Col.	49	Ohio	36
Florida	64	Oklahoma	55
Georgia	28	Oregon	43
Idaho	38	Pennsylvania	60
Illinois	36	Rhode Island	21
Indiana	38	South Carolina	31
Iowa	49	South Dakota	66
Kansas	35	Tennessee	42
Kentucky	36	Texas	34
Louisiana	23	Utah	41
Maine	50	Vermont	31
Maryland	31	Virginia	45
Massachusetts	39	Washington	32
Michigan	39	West Virginia	23
Minnesota	43	Wisconsin	31
Mississippi	72	Wyoming	37
Missouri	34	Alaska	15
Montana	45	Hawaii	27
Nebraska	37	Other	16

In accordance with the provisions of the Department's Constitution, ballots were opened and counted by an Election Committee appointed by the President. Members of this Committee for the 1957 election were: M. Genevieve Douglass, Principal, Main Street School, Farmingdale, New York, *chairman;* Frank T. Mundy, Principal, Payne School, Washington, D. C.; and Mollie B. Whitlock, Principal, Patrick Henry School, Alexandria, Virginia.

SUMMER CONFERENCES

This year, the Department will not sponsor a two-week summer conference as it has done in past years. However, a conference is being planned for the summer of 1958 at the University of Denver. The dates for this workshop have been tentatively set for July 7-18, 1958.

During the NEA's Centennial Convention in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, this summer, the Department will hold a special one-day meeting. Further information about this meeting, scheduled for July 1, Department day, will be available later.

ANNUAL MEETING

At this writing, the Annual Meeting—March 24-27 in Cincinnati, Ohio—is still a month away. But it already looks like a substantial success!

Pre-conference registration met with considerable response with well over 1,500 persons signing up for their clinic sections prior to the deadline date of February 15. Groups which proved to be especially popular among pre-conference registrants were: The Reading Program, Working with Exceptional Children, Working with the School Staff, Parent and Community Participation in the School Program, and Problems of Beginning Principals.

Hotel reservations made with the Cincinnati Convention Bureau up to February 15 reached the 2,000-mark—well on the way to the expected attendance of 3,000 or more.

For those members who could not attend the conference, a more complete report will be contained in the May issue of THE NATIONAL ELEMENTARY PRINCIPAL and in the next *Membership Directory and Annual Report.*

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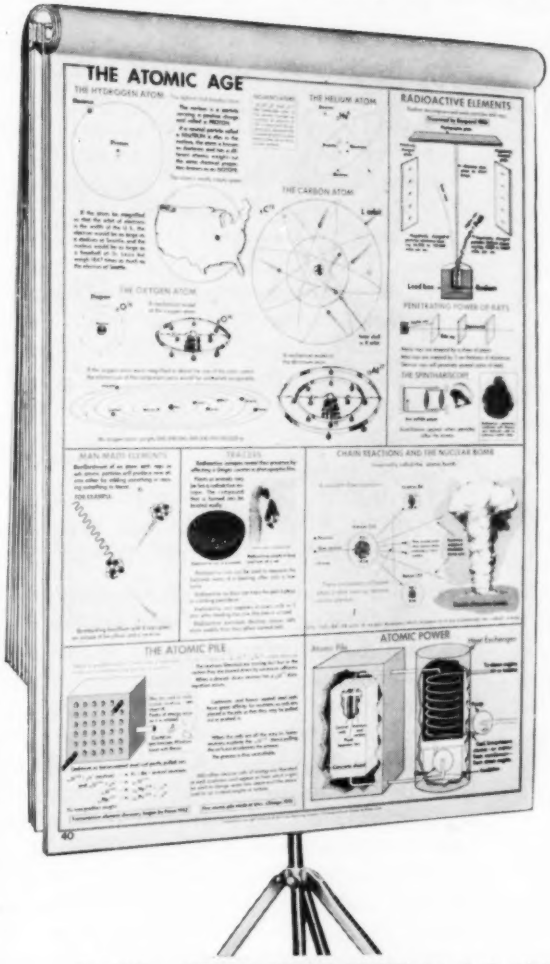

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NEW
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EDUCATION 2000 A.D. By C. W. Hunnicutt. Syracuse, New York: Syracuse University Press. 1956. 321 p. $2.00.

Do you have reading problems? Not in knowing how to read, but in finding time to read? Do you hesitate to start a serious book because you know you will be interrupted so often that you lose the thread of it? Do you keep the *Reader's Digest* at your bedside because an article at a time is manageable?

If you said yes, here is a book on serious topics for you. *Education 2000 A.D.* consists of a series of lectures on highly important topics in elementary education by highly important people. It is written and edited in a way that busy people will appreciate. Each article is self-contained tho the series forms a comprehensive pattern. Each one is about "bedtime" in length, and important words, phrases, and statements are set in bold type.

But lest the reader gain the impression that this is just a "reader's digest" of educational materials, it should be made clear that this book is actually the heart of a course, "Perspective in Elementary Education," which was offered at Syracuse University in 1956. The faculty consisted of leaders in American education who were asked to consider the present status and probable directions of elementary education. The lectures they gave make up this volume.

Here is a chance to attend vicariously classes held by C. W. Hunnicutt, Norman Cousins, Frances Keppel, Daniel Prescott, Trevor Serviss, Paul Witty, James Hymes, Arthur Gates, William Brownell, George Stoddard, Paul Hanna, William Young, Ralph Tyler, Vincent Glennon, Helen Heffernan, Henry Otto, Walter Cocking, and H. R. Benjamin. Few books on education can be found with such a roster of the "greats" in American education. You won't agree with all they say—but no one says you have to.

The fields of specialization of these people are so well known that a listing of their lecture topics is probably unnecessary. It may suffice to indicate the major areas into which they have been grouped by Editor Hunnicutt. Part I. The Setting—Part II. Focus on Children—Part III. Focus on Learning—Part IV. The Curriculum—Part V. Problems of Leadership.

Here's a book to buy. It's written by well-known, competent people; it's done in readable form; it covers the whole field of elementary education; it is not expensive; and it's a book which won't go out of date—at least not until 2000 A.D., and how many of us will still be active then?

THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPAL AT WORK. By W. V. Hicks and M. C. Jameson. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc. 1957. 332 p. $4.50.

Here is another book written specifically in a style and manner which permits it to be picked up for a few minutes with profit. It does not demand—but deserves—your undivided attention.

The authors write about what goes on in an elementary school. It's like reading a diary record of another principal like yourself, seeing the problems he faces, the solutions he tries and the results he gets. You recognize yourself in the successes and the failures, and as you go along you find yourself saying, "Hey! That's good, I'll have to try that," or, "This guy really knows what he is talking about."

This is no college theory book. This is the real thing. You can see the wheels go round. Hicks and Jameson talk with you about the opening day, the new teacher, the PTA, discipline, school spirit, school morale, things that go on in the building and on the playground.

It is all based on sound principles but there are no pages spent on high sounding theory or abstract generalizations. The authors even admit some parts are approached from the negative side

but remind us that problems often come to the principal in that form. How right they are.

Their own preface ends with a neat summary:

"We write about the elementary principal, who, pleased with his staff, proud of his school, prejudiced in favor of his pupils,
defies theory on Monday
counsels on Tuesday
inspires on Wednesday
perspires on Thursday
and on Friday anticipates Monday."

I would only change the last to say that on Friday I usually anticipate Saturday before I think again of Monday.

JOHN STERNIG
Book Review Editor

With the book reviews for this issue, our review editor, John Sternig, sent this note:

"The next two reviews were written by a guest editor, Miss Ruby Schuyler, Curriculum Director of the schools in Glencoe, Illinois.

"Miss Schuyler has devoted her life to teaching and working with teachers. In this, her last year before retirement, it is a privilege to have her review two books in the area of her own specialization."

DIAGNOSTIC AND REMEDIAL TEACHING. By Glenn Myers Blair. New York: Macmillan Company. 1956. 409 p. $5.00.

This is a very comprehensive study of remedial teaching in the skill areas: reading, arithmetic, spelling, handwriting, and the fundamentals of English. Few writers have attempted to cover all these fields in one book.

The author takes up each subject by (1) giving a statement of the problem, (2) indicating how to identify the pupils who need remedial help, (3) describing steps in careful diagnosis, and (4) giving practical suggestions for remedial procedures and materials.

This book will be helpful not only to administrators and specialists in the fields, but even more to the classroom teacher. The writer realizes that responsibility for remedial work very often falls entirely upon the teacher and he has suggested a number of technics which can be used in any classroom.

One of the strengths of this text is the broad view the author has taken of remedial teaching. He stresses the fact that, after all, to learn to read well one must read and read and read. He emphasizes the importance of wide reading to go along with the remedial program. And, in arithmetic, while diagnosis indicates that the difficulties here are usually in the fundamental processes, pupils must realize the importance of number and be motivated by purpose and interest.

The author's philosophy of any remedial program is expressed in his statement: "Outstanding remedial programs are those which utilize sound principles of learning and motivation in the activities which are implied."

POSITIONS IN THE FIELD OF READING. By Kathryn Imogene Dever. New York City: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University. 1956. 165 p. $4.25.

The positions in the field of reading have increased greatly in recent years. The variety of positions and work involved has created a need to ascertain and clarify reading programs and responsibilities of personnel.

This book is the result of a study based on responses to questionnaires which were sent to members of the National Association for Remedial Teaching and the International Council for the Improvement of Reading Instruction. The author analyzed the returned responses and found that the responsibilities of the reading specialists varied so greatly that it was a difficult task to group into types of positions. The analysis finally resulted in the following groups: "Special Teachers of Reading," "Supervisory Reading Specialists," "Reading Counselors," and "Specialists in Clinical Work."

The descriptions of jobs as reported by the respondents indicated many similarities but also many differences. The functions in general were: teaching, testing and diagnosis, supervision, and counseling. Some specialists included administrative and clerical work, research, public relations, and community activities as aspects of their work. *Positions in the Field of Reading* will be most helpful to school administrators and specialists in appraising reading programs in their schools in the light of their own particular needs. The study is inclusive of high school and college as well as elementary school.

RUBY SCHUYLER
Guest Editor

Coming Events

April 4: NEA Centennial Birthday Party.

April 10-12: Third Annual Conference, Inter-American Schools Service of the American Council on Education. Washington, D. C.

April 13-16: Southwest District, American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation, NEA. Long Beach, California.

April 23-27: International Conference, International Council for Exceptional Children, NEA. Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania.

April 26-30: Southern Division, Music Educators National Conference, NEA. Miami, Florida.

June 15-20: Centennial Celebration, United Business Education Association, NEA. Dallas, Texas.

June 30-July 5: Centennial Meeting, National Education Association. Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.

July 1-4: Annual Meeting, National School Public Relations Association, NEA. Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.

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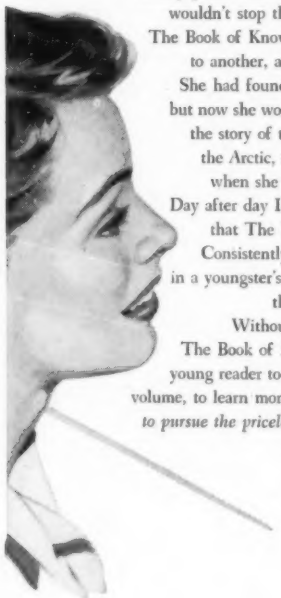

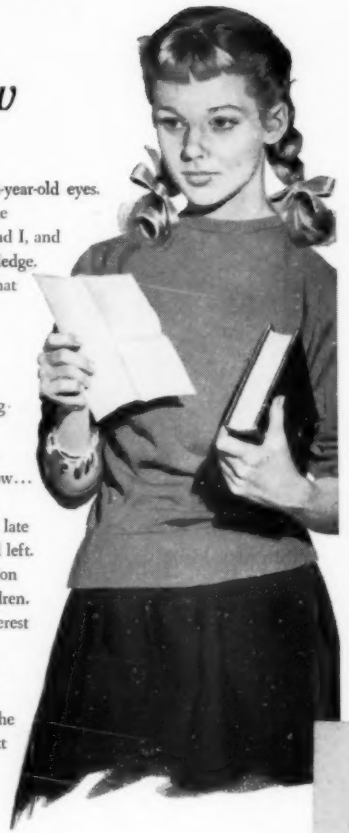

She looked at me with her bright, curious, 12-year-old eyes. "Can you please tell me where to find out about the first explorers at the North Pole?" We went across the room, this eager youngster and I, and from the shelves I handed her the index volume of The Book of Knowledge.

Back at my desk, I watched her reading, and I smiled, knowing that I had started another child on a wonderful kind of treasure hunt.

In Volume 12 she found her answer, and I saw her stubby pencil making rapid notes. But I knew she wouldn't stop there, for—as always with The Book of Knowledge—one question was leading to another, and that one to the next.

She had found the who and written it down, but now she wondered about the why and the how... the story of the compass, the geography of the Arctic, the culture of the Eskimo. It was late when she finally put the volumes back and left.

Day after day I observe this compelling fascination that The Book of Knowledge has for children. Consistently it seizes any small spark of interest in a youngster's mind, and consistently it fans this into a deeper desire to learn.

Without fail, and without effort, The Book of Knowledge seems to encourage the young reader to turn the page, to get out the next volume, to learn more than just one answer, *to pursue the priceless treasure hunt for knowledge.*

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